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Frequency Dependence and Spatial Distribution
of Seismic Attenuation in France: Experimental
Results and Possible Interpretations

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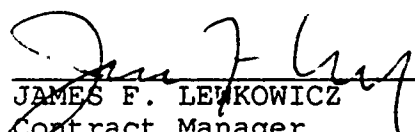
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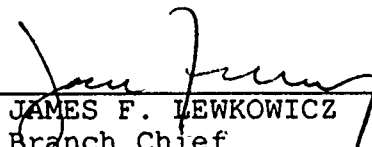
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Frequency dependence and spatial distribution of
seismic attenuation in France:
experimental results and possible interpretations.

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Abstract:

We processed digital records from 431 earthquakes at 25 stations of LDG network in France. We computed spectral amplitudes of Pg and Lg in different group velocity windows. We used this large data set to compute a map of mean crustal attenuation by evaluating simultaneously source amplitude, site response and apparent Q. We used a procedure combining an iterative reconstruction technique with an adjustment of source amplitudes and site responses at each step of the inversion. The stability of the result is tested with different subsets of data and the resolution is evaluated. We obtained maps of apparent attenuation at frequencies between 1.5 and 10 Hz, computed from Pg, Lg and early coda of Lg.

The results obtained are in a good agreement with the predictions of the single scattering model both for frequency dependence and Qs-Qp ratio. The comparison between the attenuation anomaly found in the Variscan belt and a deep reflexion seismic profile confirms the prominent part played by scattering for the apparent attenuation of seismic waves in the crust.

Introduction

The short period seismic phases Pg and Lg have been extensively studied for the purposes of nuclear test monitoring, magnitude determination or attenuation measurements (e.g. Nuttli, 1973, 1986). Considering regions in which a flat layering can be regarded as a reasonable model for the earth crust, the mode of propagation of these phases has been clearly established by the comparison between observed and theoretical properties. The theoretical results were obtained considering oversimplified models of the crust which consist of stacks of a few flat visco-elastic layers, each of them being considered as homogeneous at any scale. Nevertheless, these numerical simulations fail to explain several very general features of regional phases. The long duration of the signals (the existence of a coda) in most of the observations is not accounted for. Similarly, to explain the actual attenuation of these signals, it is necessary to include in the models a frequency dependent quality factor that is not compatible with accepted processes of intrinsic attenuation at depth. These phenomena are generally attributed to the scattering due to unprecisely defined heterogeneities that have to be added to the vertical layering usually hypothesized. The description of crustal heterogeneity can be separated into two parts. The first one deals with the small scale heterogeneity that consists of the fluctuations of the elastic properties at a scale roughly

equal or smaller than the wavelengths considered in short period seismology. These fluctuations cannot be described in a deterministic point of view because the detail of the crustal structure is far beyond our present knowledge. The implications of this type of heterogeneity were studied in detail, particularly to explain the coda of local seismograms and the frequency dependence of the apparent attenuation. Since the pioneering work of Aki (1969), it has been now clearly established that scattering on small fluctuations of elastic parameters can account, at least partially, for the existence of coda and for the frequency dependence of apparent attenuation (see Herraiz and Espinoza (1986) for a review). Most of the developments of the theory of coda waves concern the perturbations of an homogeneous medium. This represents a severe limitation to the interpretation since the earth presents a strong vertical heterogeneity. The importance of the layering for scattered waves was investigated by Wang and Herrmann (1988) and theoretical developments in this domain remain of crucial importance for the understanding of propagation at regional distances. The most obvious effect of the stratification on the scattered field is the generation of surface waves.

Large scale shallow irregularities such as sedimentary basins also produce the local conversion of body waves into propagating surface waves (Campillo, 1987). Nevertheless, because of the large observed attenuation near the surface (Toksoz et al., 1988) and the great variability of the thickness of the surface low velocity

layer, we expect the short period surface waves to be unable to propagate along paths of several hundreds of kilometers as Pg or Lg do. Various authors have tried to numerically infer the effect of deep irregularities, such as Moho uplifts, on short period Lg (Kennett, 1984; Campillo, 1987; Maupin, 1989). Their basic conclusion is that Lg appears to be a robust and stable phase even when strong lateral variations of the crustal structure occur. In view of this result, the Lg wavetrain could be used to measure the mean attenuation in the crust. Solely, a measure of the apparent attenuation does not bring much information about the cause and the mechanism of seismic attenuation. An approach to move farther on can be to correlate the characteristics of the attenuation in different regions with the different particular crustal structures encountered. In order to avoid spurious differences that can be produced when comparing measurements made with different types of data or with different techniques, we choose to use an inversion process and a large homogeneous data set. To this end, we have to collect enough data to be able to describe the attenuation in both space and frequency domains, beneath an area sufficiently large to include different geological units.

We have obtained from the LDG seismic network a data set sufficient to cover a great part of France. We require unclipped seismograms showing an acceptable signal to noise ratio in the epicentral distance range 200-1000 km. Because of the dynamic range of the network and the modest seismicity of France this

represents long observation time. In a previous study (Campillo, 1987), we used a limited number of earthquakes (18) and of stations (22) to study a region of central France. Because of the small number of records available at that time, we applied the backprojection technique to construct a map of apparent attenuation. We shall discuss these results in a following section. In this study, we have widely increased the data set and the area studied. We will use an iterative SIRT-type reconstruction technique to determine source amplitude and quality factors. We also consider early coda of Lg and Pg waves. Gupta et al. (1989) studied the distribution of Q from Lg in eastern North America assuming a regionalization based on Bouguer gravity contours and geological maps.

Data Processing

We selected 431 earthquakes in France and in its vicinity (Figure 1). These events were recorded at 26 short period vertical seismometers of the LDG network. Unfortunately we have never recorded simultaneously in good conditions at more than 20 stations. The records were collected during the period 1985-1987. For each record, we computed the density of spectral amplitude for four phases defined by the group velocity windows:

6.2 km/s > V > 5.6 km/s	Pg
3.6 km/s > V > 3.1 km/s	Lg1
3.1 km/s > V > 2.6 km/s	Lg2

$$2.6 \text{ km/s} > V > 2.3 \text{ km/s} \quad \text{Lg3}$$

At this stage, we eliminated the traces where glitches were detected. For each record, we also computed the density of spectral amplitude of the noise in a window of 30 sec before the first arrival. For a given phase and a given frequency, the spectral density is validated if the signal to noise ratio is greater than 3.

Data Analysis

We model the spectral amplitude observed at station j for earthquake i in the form:

$$A_{i,j}(f,d) = S_j(f) * E(d) * AA_{i,j}(f,d) * St_i(f) \quad (1)$$

where d represents the epicentral distance, f the frequency and:
 $-S_j(f)$ = the source excitation. We neglect the radiation pattern due to the focal mechanism as well as the directivity effect associated with rupture propagation. The directivity is known to be a strong effect only on wavelengths much smaller than the source dimension. The Pg and Lg wavetrains are made up of arrivals corresponding to very different take-off angles and therefore the radiation pattern is, in general very smoothed for these phases.

$-E(d)$ = the geometrical spreading of the phase considered in the time domain. After numerical investigations in flat layered models, we found (Campillo et al., 1984):

$$E(d) = d^{-0.83} \text{ for Lg}$$

and

(2)

$$E(d) = d^{-1.5} \text{ for Pg}$$

We assume in our analysis that Pg and Lg propagate mostly along straight ray paths i.e. that the mean velocity of S-waves in the crust is roughly constant. Therefore we neglect the effect of focusing-defocusing that was recognized for surface waves (e.g. Zeng et al., 1987).

$-AA_{i,j}(f,d)$ = the apparent attenuation that we express in the form:

$$AA_{i,j}(f,d) = \exp\left(-\frac{\pi f}{V} \int_d \frac{dl}{Q(f,x,y)}\right) \quad (3)$$

where V is the group velocity and Q the quality factor. This term includes the intrinsic attenuation but also other types of attenuation such as scattering, or propagation effects in a heterogeneous crust that affect the geometrical spreading.

$-ST_i(f)$ = the station response that represents the amplification due to site effects at a given station. The azimuthal dependence of the site response is neglected.

We performed data analysis, then constructed the map of the quality factor independently for each frequency. The first step of our analysis was to assume that the quality factor is constant over the area considered. Then we evaluated the mean quality

factor, the source excitation and the station response by an iterative process similar to the scheme used by Campillo et al. (1985). At first, we performed a linear regression to compute Q and S for each earthquake. When the correlation coefficient obtained is smaller than 0.8, the event is eliminated. This value allows us to remove some erroneous data that were kept after our previous sorting, but it can also lead to exclusion of data corresponding to sharp propagation anomalies. We accept this risk because we believe that the anomalous zones are well known and are located outside our study zone. In order to avoid wrong determinations of the source excitation, we use only the data for which the earthquake was recorded by at least 5 stations. An additional condition is that the difference of epicentral distance between the closest and the farthest station is larger than 40 per cent of the largest epicentral distance.

The results obtained at this stage are used as a starting model for an iterative reconstruction that will be described in the next section. The mean values of Q_s that we get from L_g are very similar to our previous results (Campillo et al., 1985) and show the same frequency dependence (Q_s varies as the square-root of the frequency). Nevertheless, the fact that we are willing to cover a large area with a dense set of paths limits the frequency range available. In fact we can work properly only with frequencies larger than 1 Hz. Figure 2 shows an example of the effective path coverage for a frequency of 3 Hz, after sorting out the data set.

Algorithm of inversion

This algorithm is based on the use of an iterative reconstruction technique that allows us to consider large data sets on small computers. The general scheme of the complete processing is presented in Figure 3. Stage I, as denoted in Figure 3 was discussed in the last section and consists of setting up a starting model with an homogeneous $Q(f)$. In the next stage, we compute a set of Q values at the nodes of a regular grid to describe the actual continuous distribution of apparent attenuation.

After stage I we use equation 1, the expression for the apparent attenuation and the estimations of S and S_t to evaluate parameter l :

$$l_k = \int_{d_k} \frac{dl}{Q(f, x, y)}$$

The set of the l_k -s will be used to invert $Q(f, x, y)$.

The inversion techniques used are slightly modified versions of backprojection and simultaneous iterative reconstruction technique. We shall briefly describe them.

Backprojection and S.I.R.T. operate for a given unknown $Q(f, x, y) = Q_1$ corresponding to location $X_1 = (x, y)$ and with the data from the neighbouring paths. Following Mason (1981), we define a circle of influence around X_i . Each path contributes with a weighting coefficient proportional to its length within the circle

of influence. This approach is particularly well adapted to the present problem since we know the important part played by scattered waves and multipathing in the propagation of regional phases.

The backprojection is then slightly modified by using the expression:

$$Q_i^{-1} = \frac{\sum_{r=1}^{N_i} a_{r,i} \frac{l_r}{L_r}}{\sum_{r=1}^{N_i} a_{r,i}} \quad (4)$$

where N_i is the number of pathes that cross the circle of influence centered in X_i , $a_{r,i}$ is the length of the path in the circle and L_r is its total length. We compute Q values at the locations X_i for which the number of rays is larger than N_{min} . A supplementary condition is that these rays are coming from a number of distinct sources larger than N_{Smin} . When

these conditions are not satisfied, the mean value of Q is assumed. Without further precision, the results presented here are computed with N_{min} equal to 15 and N_{Smin} equal to 8.

Following Cote (1988), we implemented an iterative inversion basically derived from S.I.R.T. (Gilbert, 1972). After the $(j-1)$ th iteration we compute the estimation of l in the j th model: l_r^{j-1} . We define the residue by:

$$res_r^j = l_r - l_r^{j-1}$$

The j th iteration consists of applying to Q^{-1} at location X_i the correction:

$$\delta(Q_1^{-1})^J = \frac{\phi(e_1)}{e_1} \sum_{r=1}^{N_1} a_{r,1} \frac{\text{res}_r^J}{L_r}$$

with:

(5)

$$e_1 = \sum_{r=1}^{N_1} a_{r,1} g_1(\theta_r)$$

and where θ_r is the azimuth of the path r and f and g are weighing functions which we are about to describe.

$g(\theta_r)$ represents the azimuthal weighting:

$$g_1(\theta_r) = G + (1-G) (N_1 - D_1(\theta_r)) / N_1$$

where $D_1(\theta_r)$ is the number of paths whose directions are in the range $(\theta_r - 10^\circ, \theta_r + 10^\circ)$ and which intersect the circle of influence centered in X_1 . G is a constant that controls the amplitude of the variation of the weighting and that we chose in practice equal to 0.5. The effect of g is to temperate the influence of strong heterogeneities in the distribution of rays.

The damping factor $\phi(e_1)$ varies with the location and depends mainly on the density of rays as:

$$\phi(e_1) = R + (1-R) e_1 / e_{\max}$$

where e_{\max} is the maximum value of the cumulated weighting factors at each point computed over the entire region studied. R is a constant chosen to be equal to 0.5 in the following examples. By using a spatially dependent damping we want to limit the variations of the model in zones where the path coverage is poor. This is specially useful considering the uncertainties implied by our parametrization of the problem as will be discussed in the

next section. We have also performed tests where we added a constant to the weighting term e_i , as proposed by Comer and Clayton (1987) who suggested that this operation may stabilize the solution. In our case, this damping affects the convergence rate but has a very weak influence on the final image.

After a series of iterations to actualize the current Q model, we compute the mean residues associated with each station and each earthquake. Next, the station responses and the source excitations are corrected by terms equal to these biases multiplied by damping factors. The values of these damping factors, relative to the mean damping applied for the inversion of Q alone, can be evaluated by comparing the partial derivatives of the amplitude with respect to Q_i , S and St in equation 1. In practice the coefficients of damping ϵ_s and ϵ_{st} , as well as the number of iterations on Q_i only, are chosen after numerous trials. We have studied systematically the influence of damping factors and number of internal iterations on the final misfits between model prediction and actual observations. To this aim, we repeated the inversion process tens of times with different parameters. In the following examples we have taken ϵ_s between 0.06 and 0.04, ϵ_{st} between 0.03 and 0.02, and the number of iterations of SIRT on Q_i only, equal to 3. With these values the complete scheme converges in about 20 iterations.

Accuracy of the results

As pointed out before, the parameters of the inversion were chosen by trial and error for the specific data set considered. After these numerical tests, it appears that applying strong damping on source excitation and station response corrections warrant the stability and the convergence of the process. The Q model obtained when the process has converged to a minimum root mean square residue is weakly sensitive to the parameters of damping used, at least when the number of data is large enough. We will illustrate the importance of reaching a critical number of data by considering independant subsets of records of phase Lg1 at a frequency of 3 Hz. We performed the inversion with 4 different sets of data. The number of sources whose records are used in the inversion are: 25, 25, 55 and 100. In the case of the 25 earthquakes subsets, we reduced N_{min} to 8 and N_{Smin} to 3 in order to cover an area comparable to that of the other cases. The Q models obtained are presented in Figure 4. The result computed from the global data set is shown in Figure 6 (Lg1). The results obtained with the two subsets of 25 events are clearly in contradiction. On the opposite, the main features of the Q-distribution computed with the entire set of records are defined correctly when using only 55 or 100 earthquakes. We interpret this very strong dependence of the stability of the solution on the number of data by two characteristics of the technique of measurement used here. The first point concerns the representation of the term of geometrical spreading by a simple smooth functional dependence (equation 2). This is an

oversimplification even for synthetic Lg seismograms whose amplitudes exhibit large spatial fluctuations due to interferences, as shown in Campillo et al. (1984). The functional form of the spreading was defined by least squares over a large range of epicentral distance. The second point is that we make an assumption of azimuthal independence of both source excitation and site response that results in a poor precision of isolated attenuation measurements. These points explain why the measurements, and therefore the inversion reaches statistical significance only for large data sets. In our first attempt to infer the attenuation in a limited part of France through a simple backprojection (Campillo, 1987), the number of events considered was too small. Nevertheless, even if some of the maps of Q were erroneous, the general conclusions of the study are confirmed by our new results, as will be shown later.

In order to add a control on the solution obtained for the entire data set, we constructed maps of resolution computed as follows. Considering a model of Q_s , S and S_t , we changed arbitrarily the value of Q_{s_1} , computed the new residues and operated 3 iterations of the global inversion process (that includes perturbations on source excitation and station response values). We plotted the perturbations obtained on Q_s to verify if the trade-off between the parameters results in specific unrealistic deformation of the image. We obtained a map for each location X_1 . A perfectly decoupling process must produce a perturbation completely concentrated in X_1 . The results obtained

are presented in Figure 5 for 6 different locations. These maps give a critical view of our results; the perturbations are far to be perfectly concentrated. Nevertheless, the perturbation occurs mostly in the region around the point considered with very small effects in remote regions. This means that we can draw a relatively optimistic conclusion: our maps are very smoothed and therefore represents a long wavelength image of the distribution of the quality factor, but on the other hand the inversion process does not produce strong spurious anomalies.

The last point that we need to discuss for an objective presentation of our results is the misfits between observed and predicted values. Our main interest in this study is the mapping of Q_s . We have seen that to infer Q_s we also need to compute source excitation and station response. Considering these two last terms as a part of our model, we can compute directly from the actual spectral amplitude an apparent Q_s^{-1} value for each record that we compare with the value predicted by the heterogeneous Q model. All misfits due to source or stations are included in this comparison. The fact that we compute the misfits directly in term of Q_s^{-1} allows to compare the amplitude of the unresolved fluctuations of the data with the amplitude of the spatial variations of Q_s^{-1} obtained from our inversion. For a frequency of 3 Hz, we found in a model with homogeneous Q_s^{-1} a standard deviation of $8 \cdot 10^{-4}$ for a mean Q_s^{-1} of $1.8 \cdot 10^{-3}$. After the inversion, the standart deviation is reduced to $4.5 \cdot 10^{-4}$.

This indicates the significance of the quality factor fluctuations with respect to the average misfit of the data.

Results obtained at 3 Hz

We have performed the inversion for the 4 time windows defined previously at the same frequency of 3 Hz. The results obtained are presented in Figure 6. The lowest Q values are reached for Qp deduced from Pg waves. This result is somewhat surprising. As it is generally admitted that the values of intrinsic Q are larger for P waves than for S waves, another cause of apparent attenuation is required to understand this result. One possible explanation is that the Pg phase is more sensitive than the Lg phase to lateral large scale heterogeneity in the crust. This can be explained by the fact that P-waves incident on the Moho can always be refracted in the upper mantle while S-waves are trapped in the crust in a wide range of incident angle. Nevertheless, as we will see later, considering the frequency dependance will lead us to invoke the scattering in a randomly inhomogeneous medium to interpret our results. The distribution of Q inferred from Pg does not exhibit strong variations at 3 Hz. The results obtained with the records corresponding to the window Lg1 are more contrasted. The zones of high attenuation correspond to the perialpine region, the central Massif and more surprisingly an area in the North western corner of the region studied that we will identify later as the Central Armorican Zone. This example

illustrates the difficulty to base a regionalization of Q on surface geology only. We shall examine later the frequency dependence for Pg and Lg .

We also present in Figure 6 the results obtained for the windows $Lg2$ and $Lg3$ that correspond to the early coda of Lg . We processed and inverted these data exactly in the same way as we did for $Lg1$, without taking into consideration their nature of coda waves. For $Lg2$ the image presents a clear similarity with the results obtained with $Lg1$. There is a slight increase of the mean value of Qs between $Lg1$ and $Lg2$. For $Lg3$ the image is poorly resolved, although one can distinguish features which are common to $Lg1$ and $Lg2$. The interpretation of the results obtained with late arrivals is difficult. Nevertheless, the very close average value of Qs that we found from primary waves ($Lg1$) and from early coda ($Lg2$), assuming the same geometrical spreading for both phases suggests that these waves are associated with a only mode of propagation, as discussed in Campillo (1990).

Frequency dependence of Qs inferred from $Lg1$

Figure 7 presents the Qs distributions computed at different frequencies. The images are less contrasted at high frequency in addition to the fact that, for high frequencies the contrast between quality factors with large values are much less significant in term of energy attenuation. There are two different features for the patterns shown on the figure. First

some patterns have amplitudes that vary strongly with frequency and disappear almost completely at high frequency. This can be explained by the fact that the attenuation is dominated by the effect of scattering, which is known to result in a peak of attenuation in the frequency domain. The anomalous attenuation in the Central Armorican Zone is in this first category. Otherwise, the Alpine and peri-Alpine region seems associated with attenuation whatever the frequency is, although the contrast is more significant for the lowest frequencies. This point suggests the addition of a strong intrinsic attenuation to the scattering effect in this region. Indeed there is a sedimentary basin as deep as 10 km at the western periphery of the Alpine arc. However one cannot neglect the fact that a mountain range like the Alps is associated with large scale crustal heterogeneity. This can affect the geometrical spreading of Lg and result in apparent attenuation.

One conclusion that we can draw from these images is the clear frequency dependence of the mean quality factor and the decrease in amplitude of the spatial variations of Q at high frequency. It was one of the main conclusions of a previous work (Campillo, 1987) to show that apparent attenuation in the crust occurs in a limited frequency band. This result supports the hypothesis that attenuation of crustal waves is caused mainly by scattering on small scale inhomogeneity rather than by factors producing frequency independent effects such as inelasticity or large scale lateral heterogeneity. The distribution of Q follows

the trend towards associating tectonically active regions with low Q . But an intriguing problem is , for frequencies between 2 and 8 Hz, the existence of a region of high attenuation beneath the Hercynian basement of western France.

Frequency dependence of Q_p inferred from P_g

The results obtained for Q_p at 4 different frequencies are presented in Figure 8. The image obtained at 2 Hz is shown only to illustrate the strong frequency dependence of Q_p in this frequency range. Actually Q_p varies with frequency even faster than Q_s . There is a relatively good agreement between the patterns obtained for Q_p and Q_s , although the images obtained for Q_p are less contrasted. This seems to indicate that, in spite of the different absolute values obtained for Q_s and Q_p , the causes of attenuation are the same for the two types of waves.

Discussion of the mean values of apparent Q_s

Q_p inferred from P_g is smaller than Q_s obtained from Lg_1 over the whole frequency range. We can interpret both apparent attenuations in terms of intrinsic attenuation and scattering effect. If we consider the mean values of the quality factors we find that the frequency dependance is stronger for Q_p than for Q_s . As this is also true for the different regions we will discuss only the results obtained for the mean values. This does not mean

that the inversion is useless, on the contrary it allows a better evaluation of source excitations and station responses and therefore a more accurate measurement of Q .

The frequency dependence cannot be directly analyzed because anelasticity and scattering are both acting with a priori unknown strength. In fact we can make reasonable assumptions about the frequency dependence of these two terms. Intrinsic Q has a high value with a very weak frequency dependence as found from measurements in shield areas (Nuttli, 1982; Singh and Herrmann, 1983; Hasegawa, 1985). Sato (1984), under a single scattering assumption, predicted that scattering Q varies with the frequency for wavelengths smaller than the correlation distance. In the same paper Sato showed that his theoretical results are in agreement with the observations made in different active regions. Assuming that we deal with wavelength smaller than the correlation distance, Sato's results indicate that the scattering Q is expected to be larger for S waves than for P waves and it is effectively our observation. We have subtracted from our results the effect of the intrinsic attenuation that we consider to be represented by a constant Q of 1500. After this correction we find Q_s^{scatt} and Q_p^{scatt} to be proportional to the frequency in the range 2 Hz-10 Hz as shown in Figure 9. The ratio between quality factors of S and P waves (about 1.5) is not as large as predicted by Sato (1984): 2.41. If we assume a correlation distance of 2 km, our results indicate a mean fluctuation of 5% when measured from S waves and of 4% when measured from P waves.

These values are actually very close. One can remember that this simple interpretation is done under the assumption that the entire path of the wave is within the randomly inhomogeneous medium. These values can be underestimated if it appears that only a part of the crust is concerned by the scattering. We can conclude from the mean values of the quality factor that there is a good agreement between our experimental results and the theoretical predictions drawn by Sato within the mean wave formalism framework.

Discussion of the spatial distribution of apparent attenuation

We have discussed our results in terms of average values for the entire area and the whole depth of the crust. We may now try to understand the distribution of the apparent quality factor. One of the main features of our image is the attenuative character of the Alpine region. Nevertheless we have seen that the poor resolution of our inversion in this area that does not allow a detailed analysis of this very complex region. It is a well known observation that active mountain ranges are associated with low Q . A more puzzling feature is the existence of a region of attenuating material elongated in the direction NW-SE in the north-western part of France. This pattern is neither correlated with the surface geology nor with the distribution of seismicity (Figure 1 gives a realistic view of the seismicity). The direction of elongation corresponds to the structural direction of

the Variscan basement in this region (Matte and Hirn, 1988). The deep crustal structures are known in this region since the "ECORS Nord de la France" experiment which consisted of a vertical reflection seismic profile and of a wide angle profile. The records obtained with this last technique have been interpreted by Matte and Hirn (1988). Their profile crosses the low Q region that we found in northwestern France. This is a very fortunate opportunity to compare the apparent attenuation of the crust in a given region with its heterogeneity as revealed by seismic exploration. The part of the seismic section that corresponds to the intersection with the zone of higher attenuation is characterized by a very specific seismic signature as shown in Figure 10. This zone is bounded by two faults that seem to cross the entire crust. The reflections from the lower crust are numerous and have large amplitudes, indicating strong impedance contrasts. This comparison between the image produced by seismic reflection experiment and the apparent attenuation supports the hypothesis that scattering plays an important part in the attenuation of seismic waves within the crust. Indeed this agreement may be fortuitous but it is the only example of such a comparison that we can make with our data set.

An interesting feature of this comparison is that it indicates a correlation between the apparent attenuation of multiply reflected crustal waves and the heterogeneity of the lower crust. The heterogeneity of the lower crust is revealed by its large reflectivity in most of the examples of deep reflexion

profiles (e.g. Brown et al., 1986; Peddy and Hobbs, 1987). On the contrary the upper crust is generally more transparent to seismic waves. The strong scattering of short period waves in the crust could be localized in the region of strong reflectivity, i.e. the lower crust. A controversial hypothesis can be drawn: most of the attenuation occurs in two regions of the crust: the first few kilometers beneath the surface as suggested by Toksoz et al. (1988) and the highly inhomogeneous lower crust as shown in our study. The fact that an important part of apparent attenuation of S waves originates in the possibly ductile lower crust is consistent with the explanation of the temporal variation of coda Q proposed by Jin and Aki (1989).

Conclusion

We have shown that a precise measurement of Q_s or Q_p from regional phase records requires the processing of a large data set. The very large trade-off between the unknowns necessitates a very careful interpretation of the results of the inversion. We believe that the inversion may be also useful to increase the accuracy of the measurement of the mean value of the quality factors. We have shown that the relatively poor resolution of our inversion results in an important smoothing of the image but does not produce artefacts.

The results obtained show the frequency dependance of Q_p and Q_s . A simple analysis shows that the mean values obtained are in

agreement with the single scattering model of Sato (1984) which implies a linear dependence of the quality factor with frequency and larger values of Q_p than Q_s . We found that the mean fluctuation of velocity needed to explain the data is about 5%. The distribution of quality factors is governed by large scale structures such as the alpine range. We found that ancient structures can be associated with zones of high attenuation. The Central Armorican Zone in the Variscan belt is an example of that. Because we have an image of the crustal structure obtained with wide angle reflexion, we can associate the high apparent attenuation in this zone with scattering in a highly heterogeneous lower crust. Such a comparison between the apparent attenuation and the observed heterogeneity of the crust must be repeated to confirm the correlation obtained in this paper. The quality factor tomography is useful for the quantitative interpretation of short period seismic phases but if such a correlation is confirmed, it can also be a promising tool of investigation of deep crustal structures.

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Figure Captions

Figure 1: Locations of earthquakes (squares) and stations (black dots) used in this study.

Figure 2: Path coverage at a frequency of 3 Hz.

Figure 3: Scheme of data processing and inversion.

Figure 4: Results obtained with different subsets of 25, 25, 55 and 100 events.

Figure 5: Resolution maps relative to 6 different locations.

Figure 6: Results obtained at 3 Hz for the 4 group velocity windows considered.

Figure 7: Results obtained for the group velocity window Lg1 at different frequencies.

Figure 8: Results obtained for Qp in the group velocity window corresponding to Pg

Figure 9: Frequency dependence of the quality factor for P and S waves after correction of our result from a frequency independent intrinsic Q of 1500.

Figure 10: Wide angle reflection profile showing a zone of strong heterogeneity in the crust (after Matte and Hirn, 1988) and the apparent Qs inferred from Lg (Lg1).

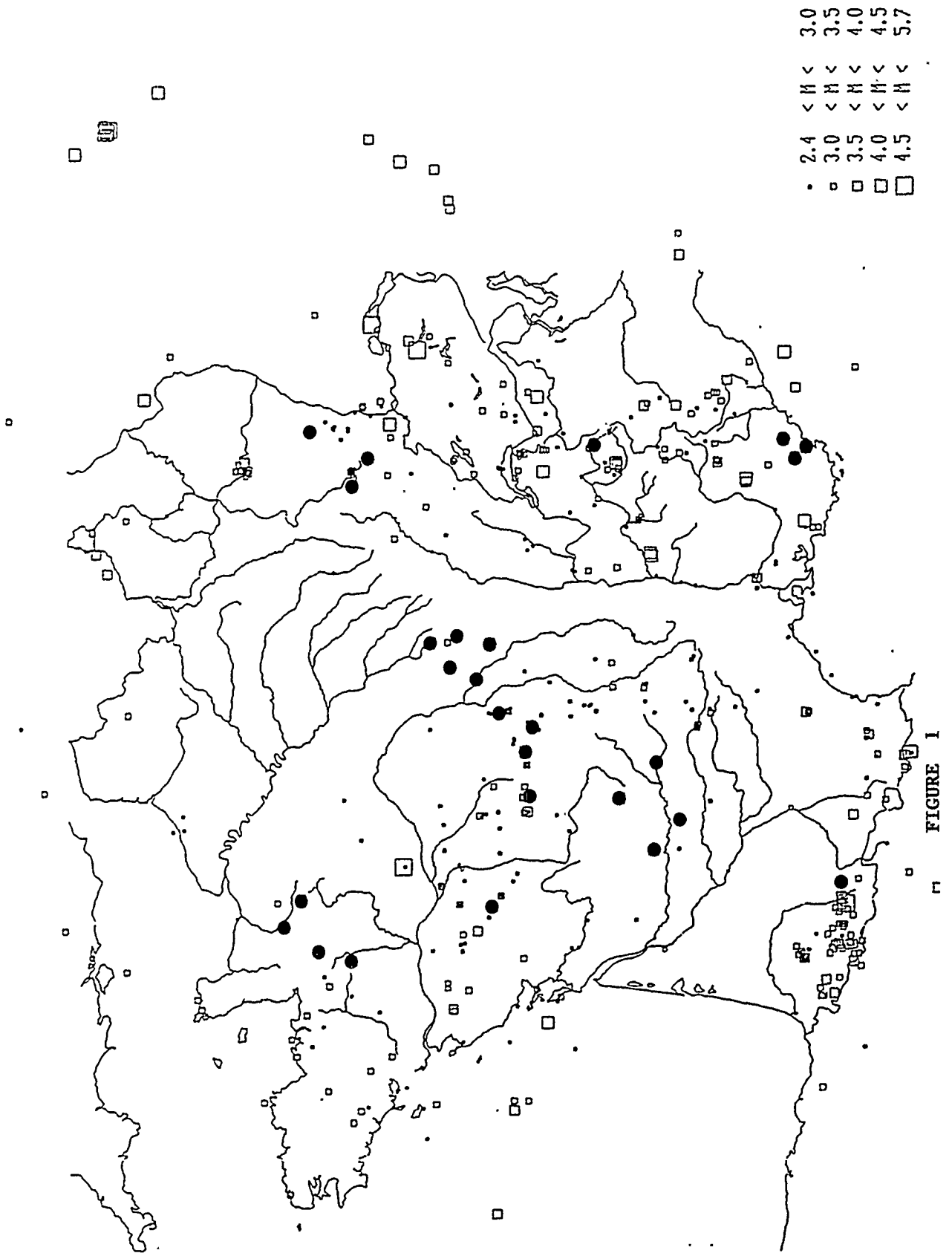
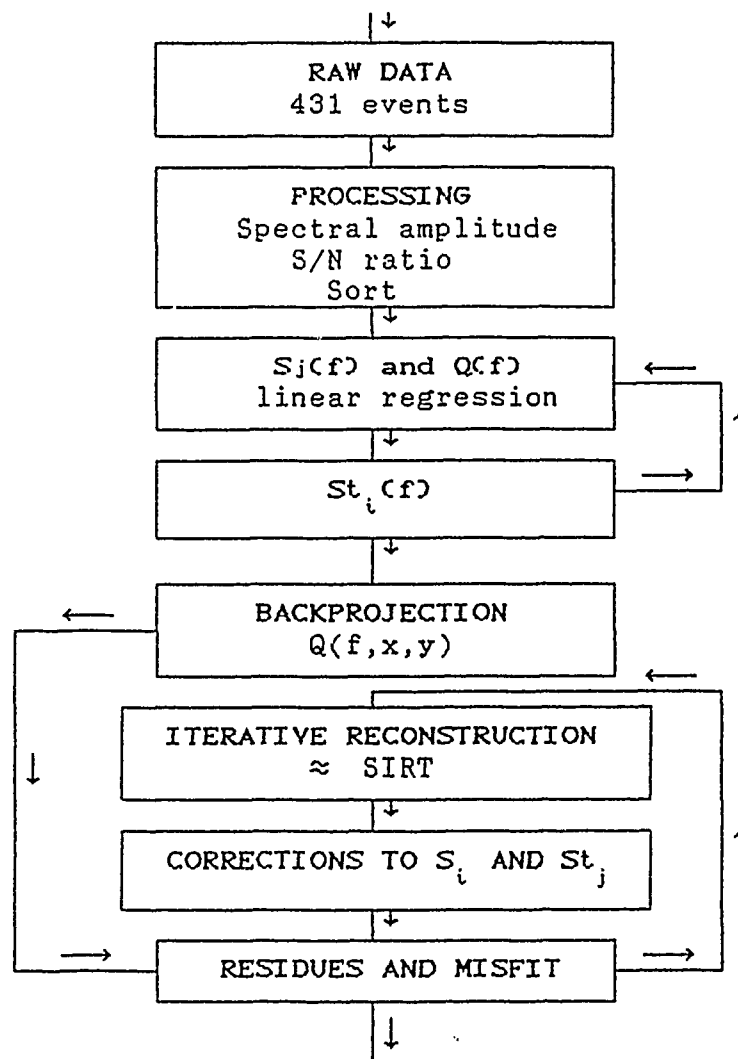




FIGURE 2



S
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FIGURE 3

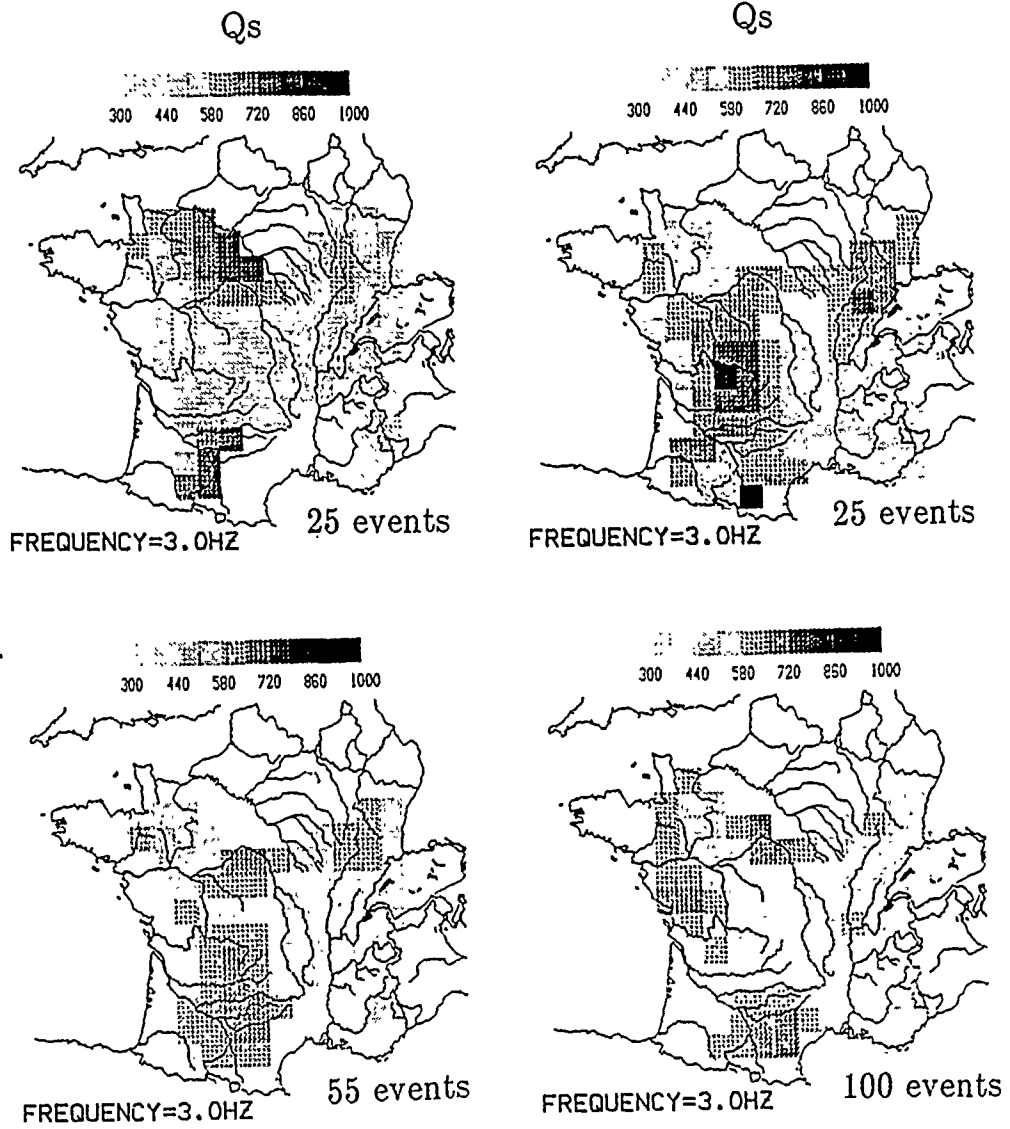


FIGURE 4

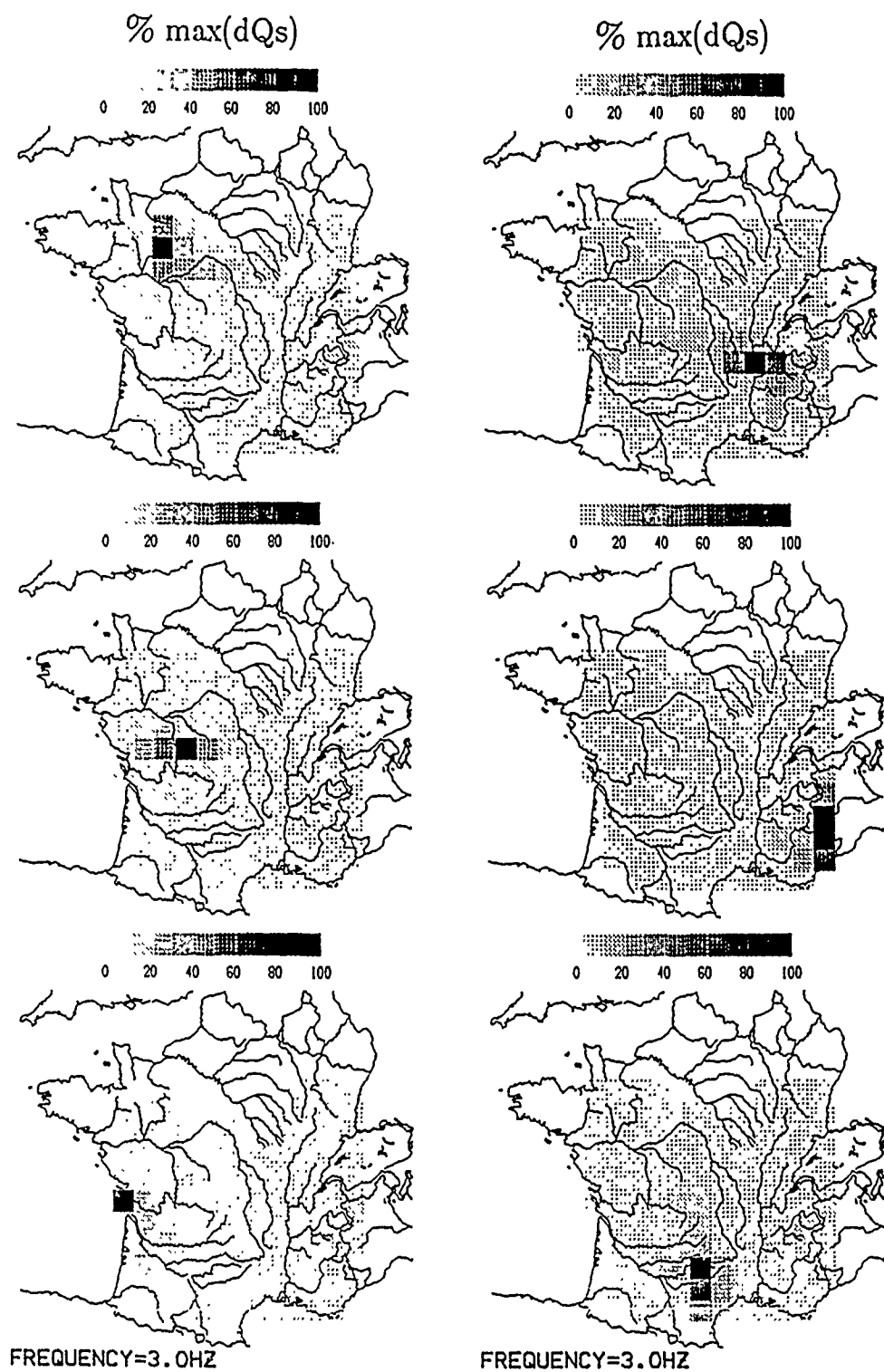


FIGURE 5

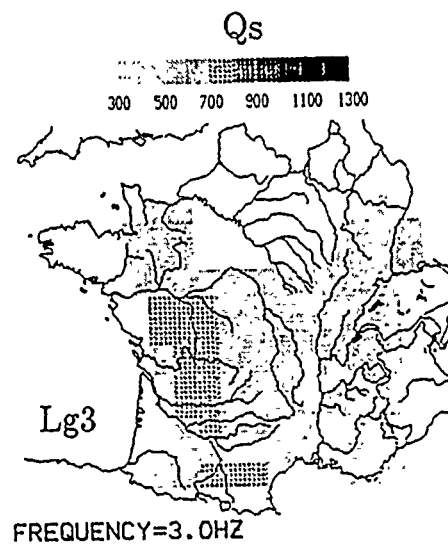
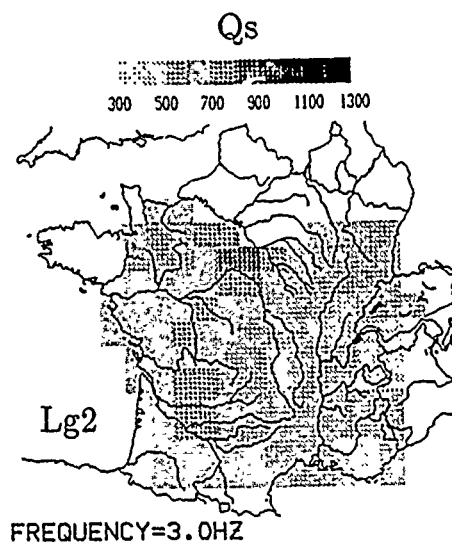
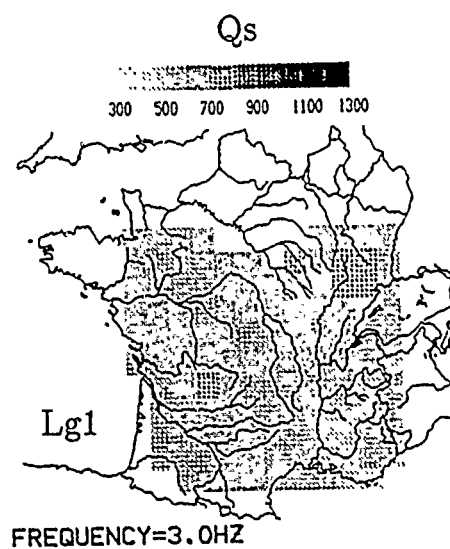
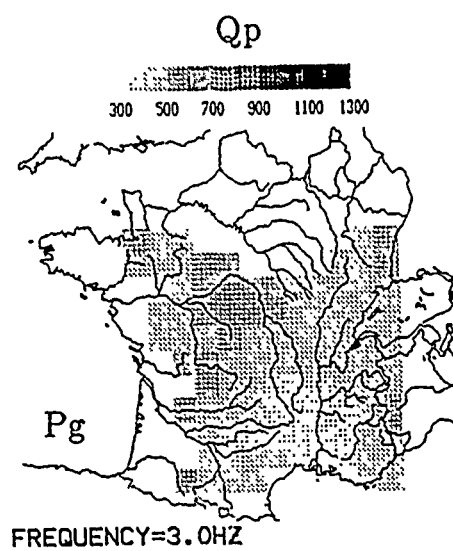


FIGURE 6

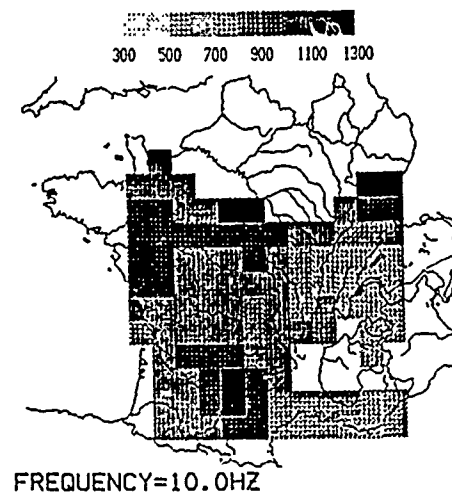
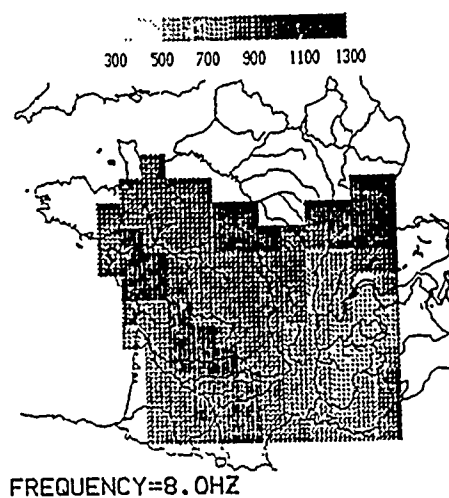
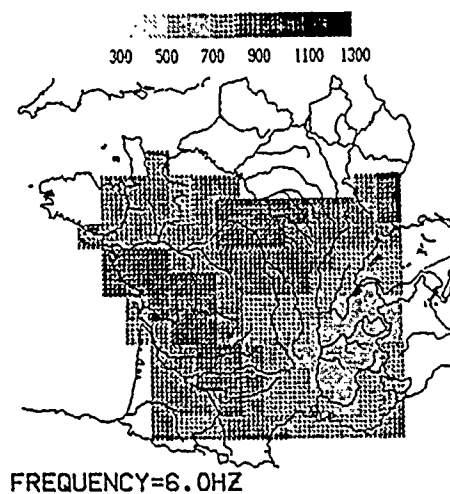
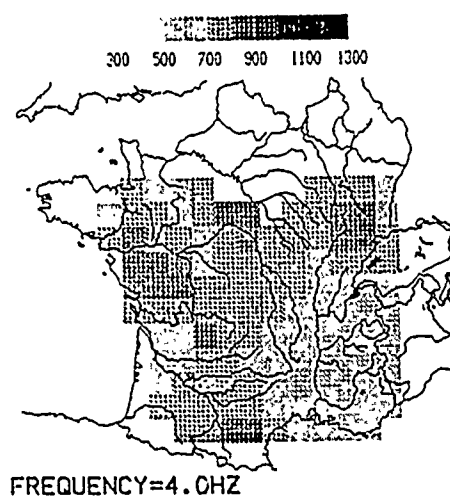
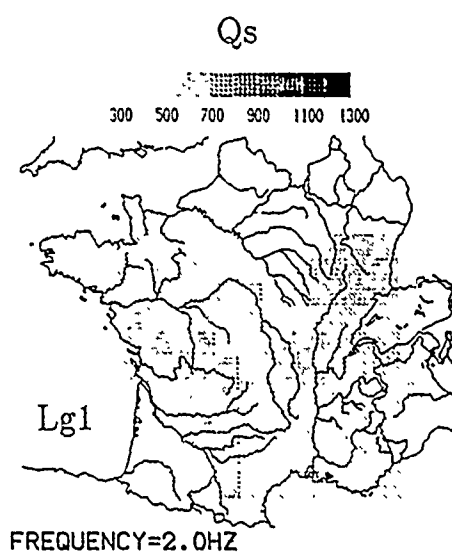


FIGURE 7

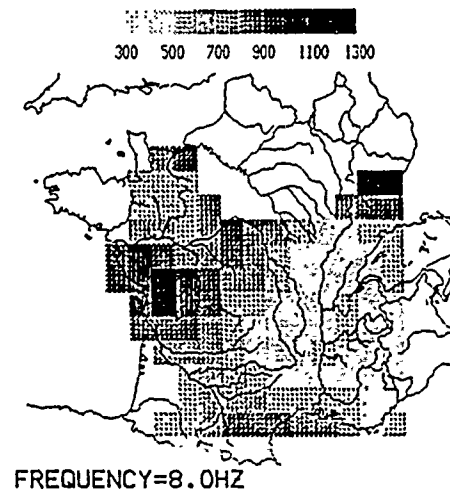
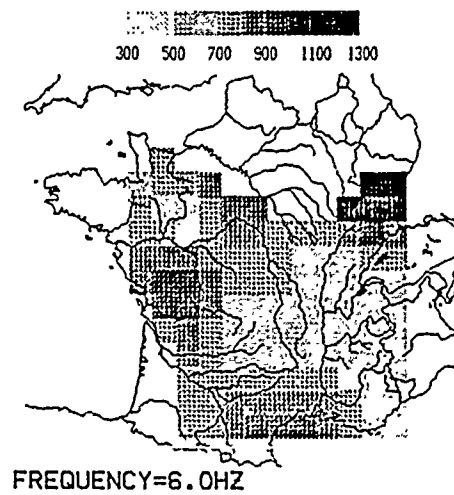
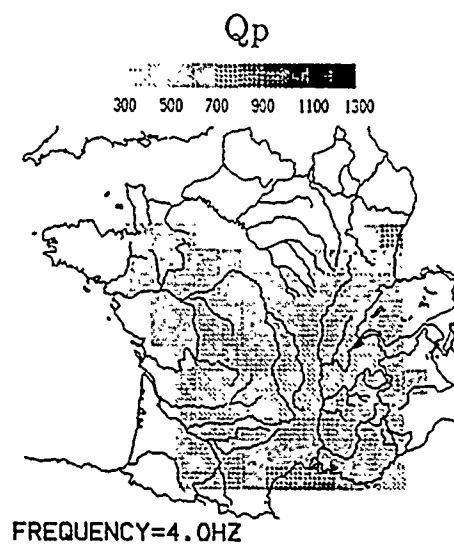
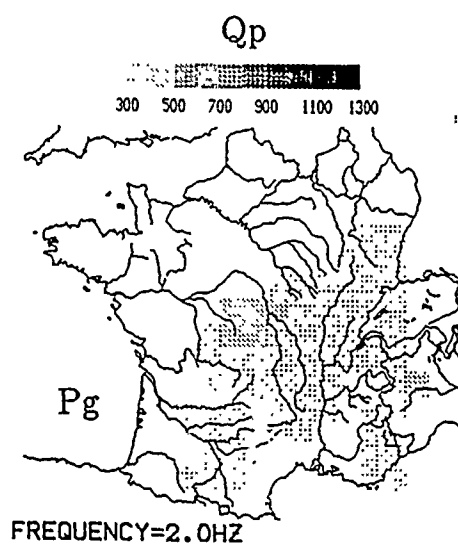


FIGURE 8

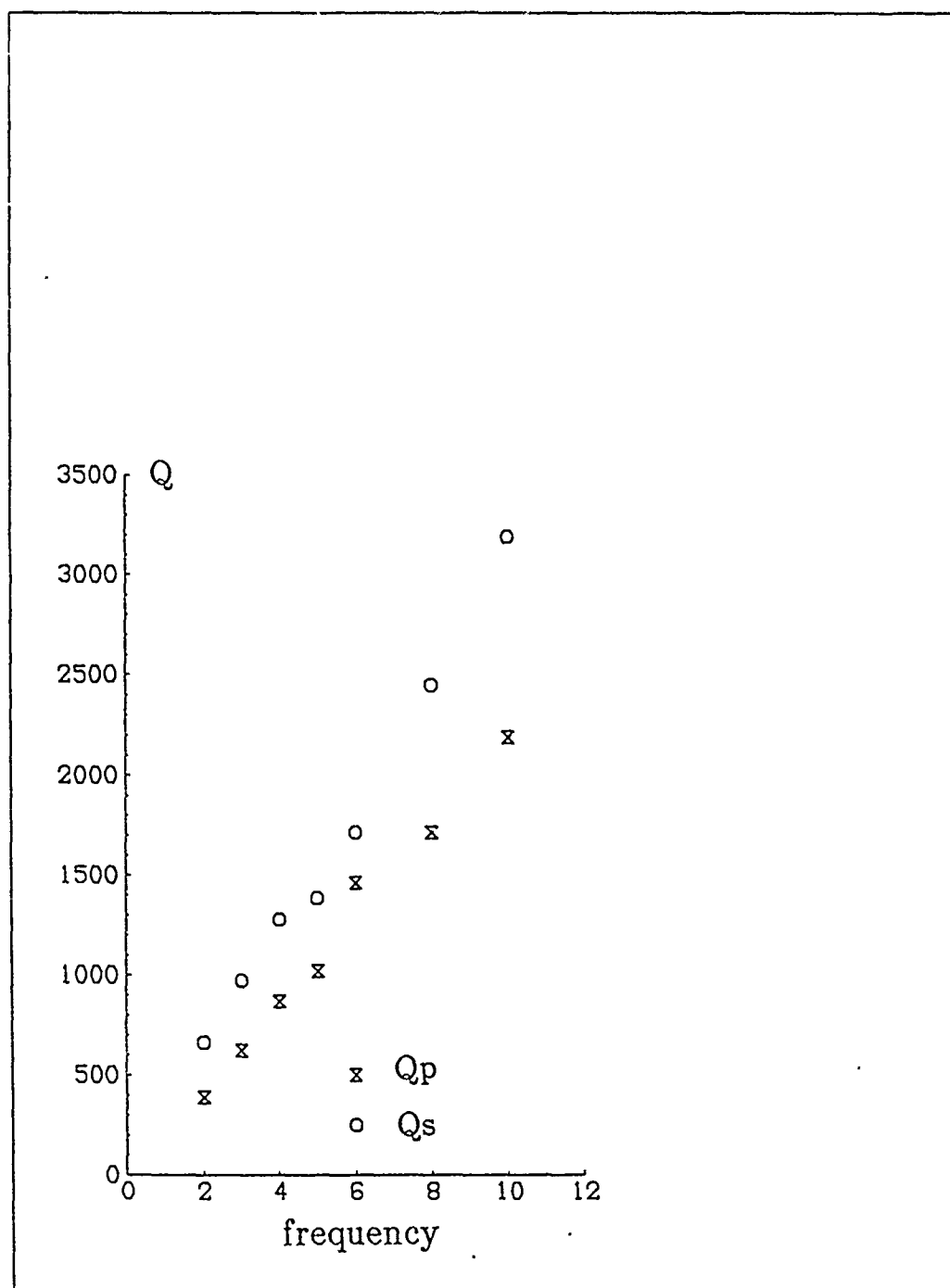


FIGURE 9

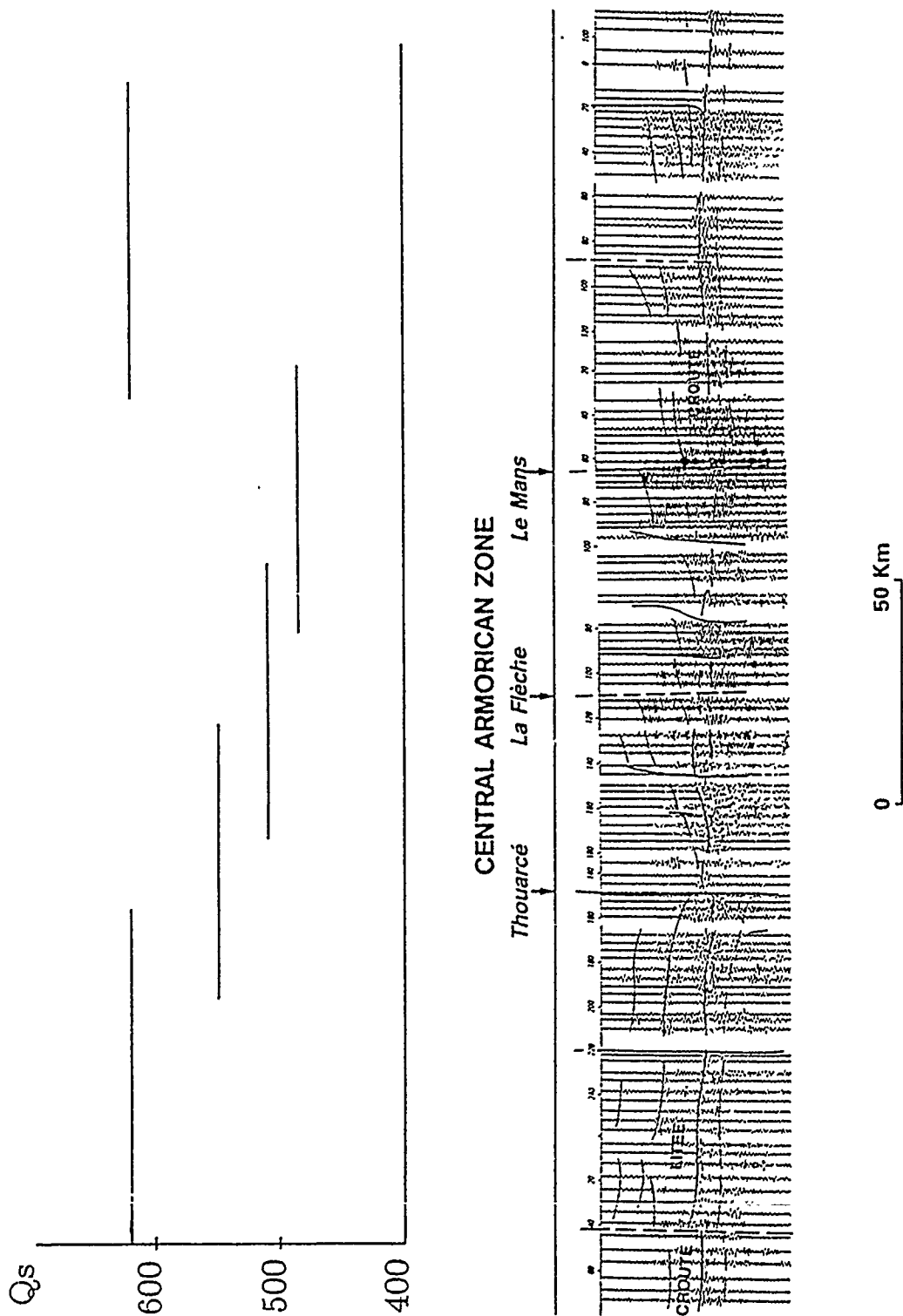


FIGURE 10

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